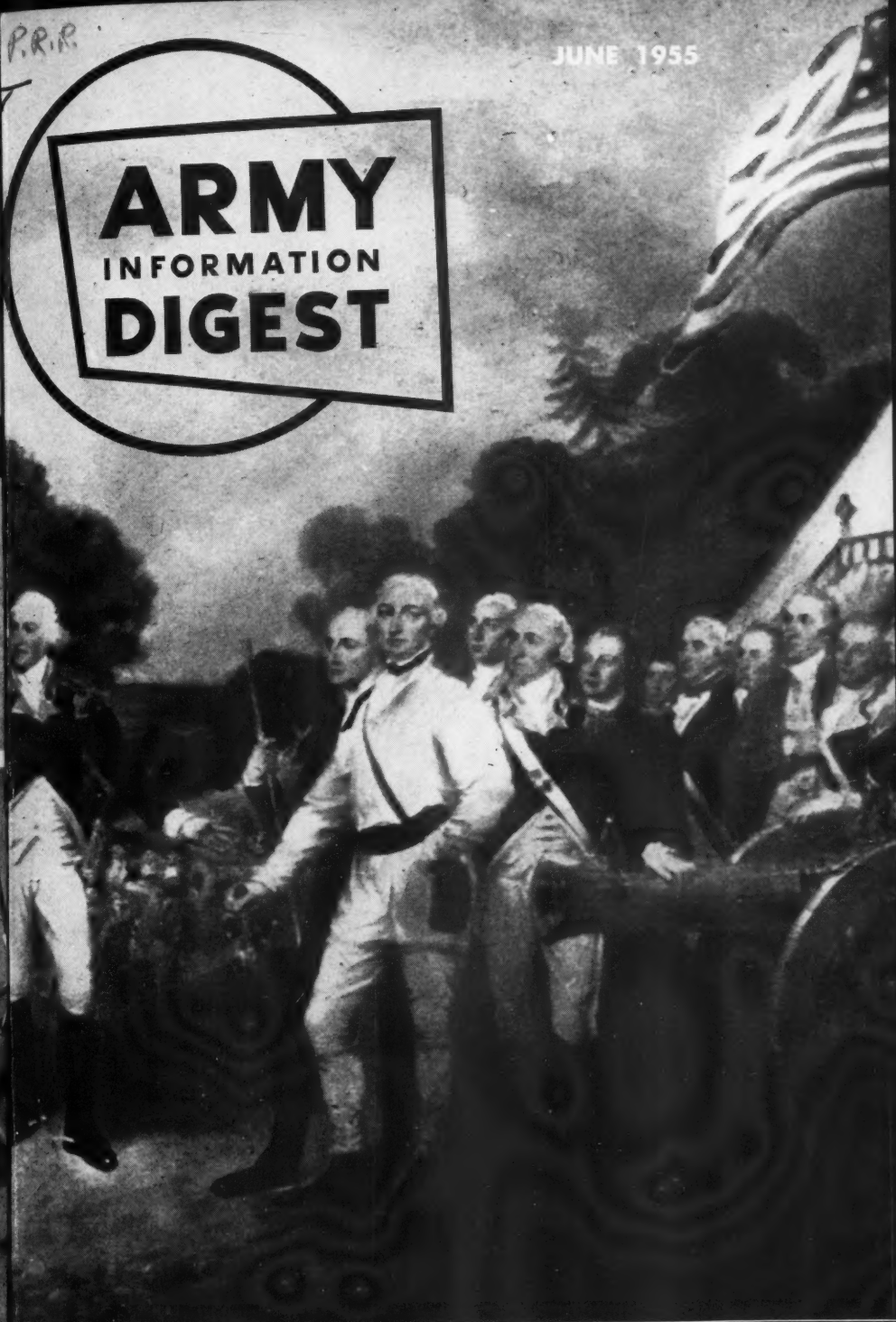


P.R.R.

JUNE 1955

ARMY

INFORMATION
DIGEST



Special Issue:

THE UNITED STATES ARMY 1775-1955



ARMY INFORMATION DIGEST

**OFFICIAL MONTHLY
MAGAZINE
of the
DEPARTMENT OF THE
ARMY**

The mission of ARMY INFORMATION DIGEST is to keep personnel of the Army aware of trends and developments of professional concern.

THE DIGEST is published under the supervision of the Army Chief of Information and Education, Maj. Gen. Gilman C. Mudgett.

EDITOR

Lieutenant Colonel Leilyn M. Young

PRODUCTION EDITOR

Captain Max L. Marshall

SENIOR ASSOCIATE EDITOR

Samuel J. Ziskind

ASSOCIATE EDITORS

Joseph F. Bierstein, Jr.

Owen J. Remington

Publication approved by Director,
Bureau of the Budget, 20 May 1954.

Manuscripts on subjects of general interest to Army personnel are invited. Direct communication is authorized to: The Editor, ARMY INFORMATION DIGEST, Cameron Station, Alexandria, Va. Unless otherwise indicated, material in the DIGEST may be reprinted provided credit is given to the DIGEST and to the author.

DURING THE ARMY'S first 180 years, the face of war has been radically transformed from the manner of the Revolutionary era with its gay uniforms, close-order tactics and musket volley fire to the hard-hitting, utilitarian teamwork of the infantry-tank-artillery arms. Something of this contrast is reflected in the front cover scene showing General Horatio Gates and his staff at Saratoga, 17 October 1777, as painted by John Trumbull. The breakthrough by an American armored unit at Chipyong-ni in February 1951 is depicted on the back cover.

WHILE the Army's weapons and tactics have changed through the years, its purpose remains steadfast—to overwhelm and defeat any enemy attack against our homeland and the liberties of our people.

PICTURE CREDITS: All illustrations are U. S. Army photographs, except National Archives, cover I, pp. 4, 8, 9, bottom 14, 21, 22; U. S. Coast Guard, p. 27; U. S. Navy, p. 34; Library of Congress, bottom, p. 10.

DISTRIBUTION

ACTIVE ARMY

Admin & TecSvcBd (1); CONARC (45); Armies (26); MDW (31); AA Comd (5); Corps (12); Div (16); Brig (3); Regt Gp (4); Bn (2); Co (1); Fts & Cps (4); Gen & Br Svc Sch (25) except USMA, Army Info Sch, CGSC, Army War College; Depots (2); PMST ROTC (2); US Army Hosp (15); Gen Hosp (80); Pers Cen (3); POE (4); Arsenal (2); Dist (1); except Mil Dist (2); Cruist Dist (4); Cruist Sta (1); Cruist Sub Sta (1); DB (5); Div Engr (1).

NG & USAR

Same as Active Army except one (1) copy per unit.

Unless otherwise noted, distribution applies to CONUS and overseas. For explanation of abbreviations used see SR 320-50-1.



JUNE 1955

Volume 10

Number 6

A color guard of the 3d Infantry Regiment, Fort Myer, Virginia, appears in colonial dress, symbolizing that unit's continuous service since the inception of the U. S. Army.

A Special Issue

Commemorating One Hundred and Eighty Years

of the United States Army's service

to the Nation.

**As in the 180 years from 1775 to 1955—whether
—standing ready to serve the Nation is**

THE UNITED STATES

... Protector

FROM THE earliest days of the English settlements in North America the Army has been an instrument of the executive power, first of the separate colonies, then of the Confederation, and finally of the United States, which largely owes its independence to the Army.

Since the establishment of the United States new lands have been explored, occupied, and civilized and the Federal authority built up at home and abroad through the exploits and sacrifices of its soldiers.

The Army has also had a profound influence on other aspects of American life, and many eminent men of the Colonies and Republic have served in its ranks at some time in their careers.

IN THE beginning the armed forces of the English colonies in America were similar to those of

BRIGADIER GENERAL P. M. ROBINETT, U. S. Army-Retired, is Chief, Special Studies Division, Office of the Chief of Military History, Department of the Army.



Brig. Gen. P. M. Robinett

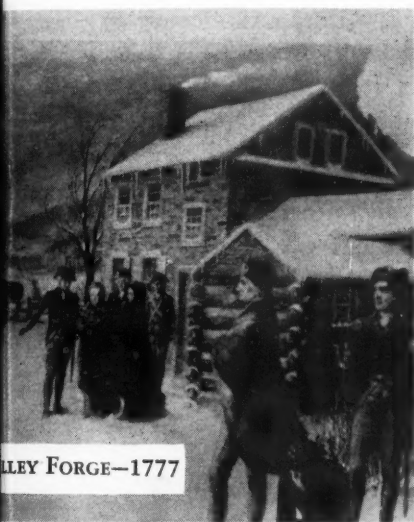
England for the colonists brought with them English civil and military institutions. Each colony raised its own Militia for the preservation of order and defense of its frontiers.

As an added measure of security, Great Britain from time to time sent Regular units to the Colonies. When a special emergency arose an expedi-

er times of peace, peril or crisis

UNITED STATES ARMY

of Our Liberties



VALLEY FORGE—1777

P. W. Robinett, USA-Ret.

tion was formed, usually made up of Regular British troops reinforced by Colonial Militia. Thus Colonial troops participated in numerous expeditions and sometimes engaged in them alone as, for example, in the seizure of Louisburg off Nova Scotia during the French and Indian Wars.

An intermittent, century-long con-

test between France and Great Britain for control of North America culminated in 1763 with British power firmly established. The English colonists had participated actively in the struggle and therefore shared among themselves something more than a common heritage.

As early as 1754 a common defense plan had been attempted at the Albany convention. Distance from Great Britain and Europe, which so many had left without regret, the struggle with nature, and war with the French and the Indians had transformed the colonists into a new people whose leaders were beginning to think continentally.

1775-1783: Revolutionary War

THE NAVIGATION and Trade Acts and other restrictive economic measures and a growing spirit of independence in the Colonies, as well as deeper and more obscure causes, led to grave differences be-



The famed "shot heard round the world" at Lexington-Concord 19 April 1775 marked the beginning of the Revolutionary War.

tween Great Britain and the English colonies in America. When these differences finally resulted in open resistance at Lexington on 19 April 1775, British troops became enemies instead of friends and the Revolutionary War began.

From the point of view of the Americans, the war was fought to a finish on their own ground, much of it a primitive wilderness in which space could always be traded for time.

The Continental Congress was the executive agency for the conduct of the Revolutionary War. Gradually a Board of War was developed to exercise the function. When the articles of Confederation were finally ratified in 1781, the Board was replaced by a Department of War.

Gen. George Washington, Commander in Chief, Continental Army, meticulously maintained a deference to the Congress and its instrumentalities throughout the war. This precedent is one of the basic tenets

on which the Army still functions today.

During the Revolutionary War mobilization and demobilization were continually in progress. Approximately 250,000 men served at some time; more than half of these were Continental troops and the remainder Militia. During the latter part of the war some use was made of a draft by certain of the states.

THE Continental Army was created 14 June 1775 when the Continental Congress authorized 10 companies of Infantry. The Army thus acquired the distinction of being "the senior service" and the Infantry the "senior arm." Subsequently, troops of the other arms were authorized and raised. The Continental Army and more particularly the specially recruited Light Infantry became the hard core of General George Washington's forces.

A bold American attempt to win the "Fourteenth Colony," Canada,

failed, largely because the French inhabitants did not share the views or experiences of the English colonists. The British countered with an invasion from the north with the intention of securing the line of the Hudson River and separating New England from the other states.

After a signal American victory at Saratoga, France and the United States concluded a "conditional and defensive alliance" on 6 February 1778. France then furnished land and sea forces and munitions to assist the Allied cause.

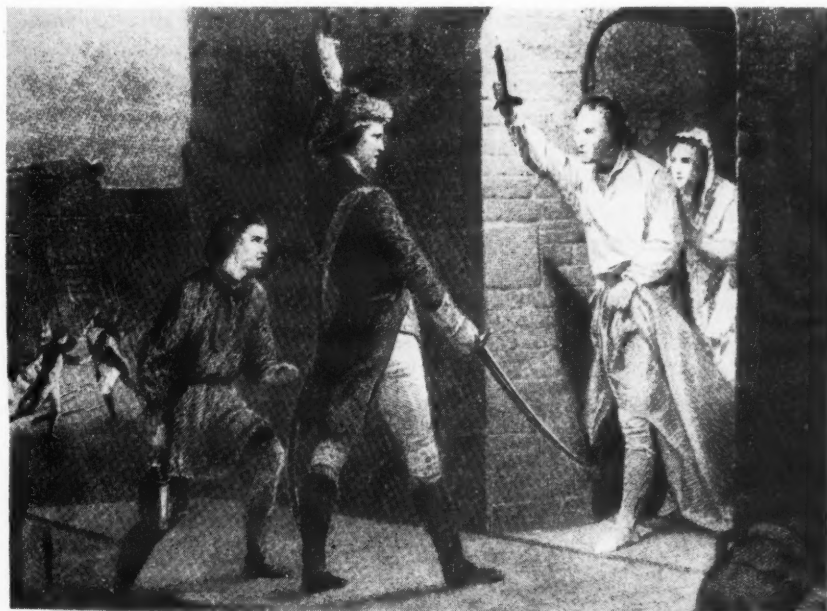
Finally, after many bitter years and the low ebb at Valley Forge and after the failure of the British in the South, General Washington was able to bring allied sea and land forces to bear against Cornwallis at Yorktown. There, near the site of the first

successful English lodgment in North America, the conflict was brought to a conclusion with the surrender of Cornwallis on 19 October 1781.

THE SYSTEM of dispersed order used by the Army in many small frays on the frontier and in the Revolutionary War ultimately had a decisive effect on the art of war. Then again, Maj. Gen. Frederick von Steuben's oral instruction and his little *Blue Book*, the first training manual used by the Army, improved discipline in the Revolutionary forces.

After the cessation of hostilities the Militia forces were demobilized and by June 1784 the Continental Army was reduced to a mere guard for military stores at West Point and

Capture of Fort Ticonderoga by Colonel Ethan Allen's Green Mountain Boys in 1775 stirred American ardor.





Surrender of Cornwallis to General George Washington at Yorktown, 19 October 1781, marked virtual end of fighting in Revolutionary War.

Fort Pitt—an example of military unpreparedness that was to recur repeatedly in the Nation's history. In 1785 one regiment of Infantry which included two companies of Artillery was authorized, a total of 700 men.

During the course of the war the Army losses are estimated to have been 4,044 killed incident to battle and 6,004 wounded. Disease and prison ships took an even heavier toll. The war ended with foreign trade disrupted, with only a very inefficient central government to resolve the grave problems of the day, and with that government and the states heavily in debt.

By the Treaty of Paris, 3 September 1783, the United States achieved its independence. But the new nation had to overcome serious constitutional questions and organize an army to enforce its policies before it could really begin to resolve the variegated and complex problems left by the war.

1783-1815: The War of 1812

THE CAUSES of the Revolutionary War were not eradicated by the Treaty of Paris. The new Republic was still embroiled in economic, political, and territorial difficulties with England and Spain. Portions of the territory ceded to the United States were still occupied by British forces which remained as late as 1796, and British agents continued their activities among the Indians within United States territory. The Confederation was too weak to cope with these problems and with those of the frontier.

American leaders recognized that this internal weakness was an invitation to foreign aggression. Therefore, a convention was assembled at Philadelphia on 14 May 1787 to consider measures for strengthening the central government. It brought forth the Constitution of the United States which was ratified and became operative with the inauguration of



The Battle of Fallen Timbers in 1794 cleared the Ohio region for settlers.

President Washington 30 April 1789.

The Constitution designated the President as Commander in Chief of the armed forces, but gave the Congress actual control by putting the purse strings in its hands and by granting it the sole power to declare war. The first law relative to military affairs, passed by Congress on 7 August 1789, established a Department of War responsible for both the Army and Navy, an arrangement which was continued until 30 April 1798 when the Navy Department was created.

On 29 September 1789 Congress passed an act continuing the Army created by the Continental Congress. Washington's recommendations for a Peace Establishment—including a Regular or standing force, a well-organized and uniform Militia, arsenals of military stores, and military academies—were not fully adopted.

The Militia Act of 1792—which with minor modifications remained law until the National Defense Act

of 1916—failed to provide a "well-regulated and uniform Militia." But, recognizing national defense as a duty of citizenship, it made every able-bodied man between the ages of 18 and 45 a member of the Militia. The act failed to establish a satisfactory basis for raising troops in case of emergency.

AFTER suffering a number of humiliating defeats by the Indians on the frontier, the Army was reorganized in 1792 as the "Legion of the United States." This in turn was organized into four sub legions each combining all the combat arms. The Legion, trained by Maj. Gen. Anthony Wayne, soundly defeated the Indians at the Battle of Fallen Timbers on 20 August 1794, thereby ending the serious troubles on the Northwest frontier.

With the national government firmly established, President Washington declined reelection in 1796. In his Farewell Address he advised

his successors to avoid both involvement in European affairs and permanent alliances. This became the keystone of American foreign and military policy until the 20th century.

Strength of the Army increased and decreased as crises arose and passed. The Whiskey Rebellion, the threat of war with France and later with England, led to expansion; but economy, parsimony and latent fear of military power just as often led to reductions.

MILITARY and naval retrogressions were evident during President Jefferson's administration even though the need for troops actually increased when the United States purchased Louisiana. But in 1802 his administration did carry out Washington's recommendation for a military academy.

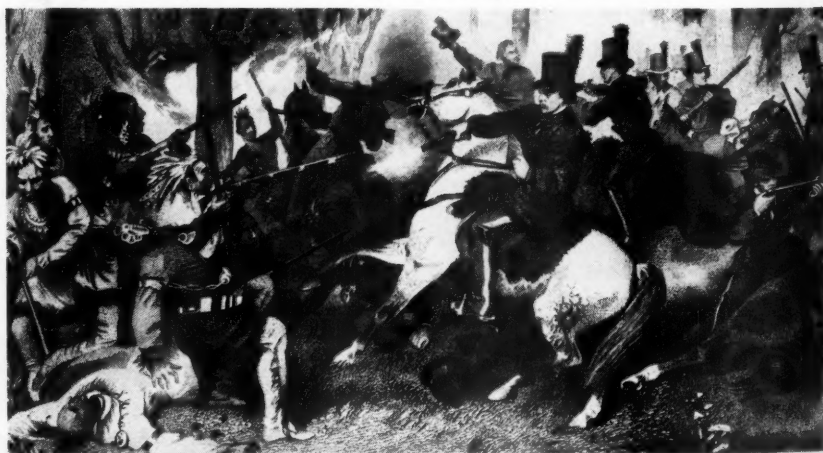
Jefferson also initiated the exploration of the West. The expedition of Capt. Meriwether Lewis and Lt. William Clark to the Pacific, be-

gun in 1803, and those of Lt. Zebulon Pike to the headwaters of the Mississippi in 1805 and to the Southwest in 1806 are notable in the annals of exploration.

Nevertheless, the United States failed to produce a force capable of making American foreign policy effective in the crises leading up to the War of 1812. Impressment of American seamen, aggressions upon American commerce by the British system of blockade, and British incitement of hostile Indians were among the immediate causes which led to the declaration of war against England on 18 June 1812.

There was no planning for war-time mobilization or procurement before the outbreak of war. This failure contributed to the poor showing made by the Army. During the war the United States raised approximately 530,000 troops without resorting to conscription. However, most of these troops entered the service on short-term enlistments

Death of Tecumseh at Battle of the Thames, 1813, brought an end to the warlike career of the Indian chief who sought to unite midwestern tribes.



and were never actually employed in battle.

Except at Plattsburg and in the inconclusive battles of Chippewa and Lundy's Lane, the Army fared badly in the North. It was soundly defeated at Bladensburg, and the Capitol at Washington was burned. Maj. Gen. Andrew Jackson's command retrieved the Army's reputation in the great but belated victory at New Orleans on 8 January 1815.

The Navy did well on the lakes where Commodore Oliver H. Perry's accomplishments were outstanding.

THE TREATY of Ghent, ending the war, was signed 24 December 1814. Army casualties included 1,950 men killed incident to battle and 4,000 wounded. The United States had upheld its honor and maintained its territorial integrity, but the treaty ignored the actual causes of the war. The decision to acquire Canada by force was given up, and the stage was set for the eventual relinquish-

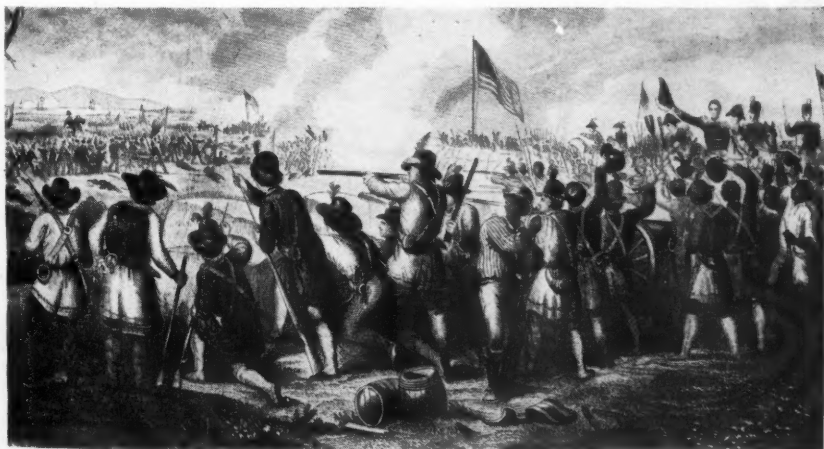
ment of claims to the northern regions of Oregon and the Louisiana territory and for the extension of the the present boundary to the Pacific.

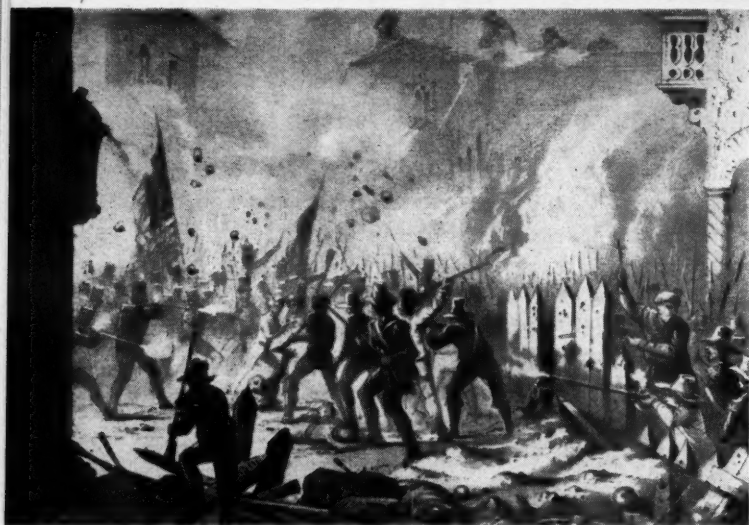
Even during the War of 1812 units were continually being discharged, and with the ending of the war a wholesale demobilization followed. The Army was soon reduced to a peacetime basis. Excess regiments were either disbanded or consolidated with others of the Regular Army. The cavalry was eliminated altogether.

1815-1848: The Mexican War

IN THE period following the War of 1812 the United States Army was somewhat enlarged over the prewar Army, but remained woefully weak. Due to the small numbers and scattered locations of Regulars, Militia troops were largely relied upon in the wars with the Seminoles, Creeks, and other Indian tribes on the frontier.

At the Battle of New Orleans, 8 January 1815, American forces defeated British regulars.





The siege of Monterey was a highlight of Mexican War.

Despite a weak military posture, President Monroe boldly announced his doctrine of "America for the Americans" in 1823, thus assuming responsibility for the protection of both North and South America against foreign encroachment and limiting the southern extension of the Russian Territory of Alaska.

The Army continued to play an outstanding role in the exploration of the West and in establishing government and order on the frontier. These tasks led to the reintroduction of the Cavalry in 1832.

Indefinite boundaries of the Louisiana Purchase involved the United States in problems with Mexico as

the successor of Spain. The border problem with Mexico was aggravated by United States citizens who entered Texas and established an independent republic.

Santa Anna moved against the rebels and destroyed the garrison in the Alamo but was decisively defeated by the Texan general Sam Houston at San Jacinto on 21 April 1836. On 1 March 1845 a Congressional resolution for the annexation of Texas was signed by the President. The Mexican minister announced that this act would be considered as a declaration of war by his government and asked for his passports.

American troops march into Mexico City at conclusion of Mexican War.



To meet the situation, the Army was expanded by calling up elements of the Militia and a number of Volunteer units. The Regular Army formed the framework upon which the expanded Army was built. Of the 117,000 men mobilized, approximately one-third belonged to the Regular Army and the remainder to the Militia and Volunteer outfits.

Again, as in previous wars, commanders were handicapped by short-term enlistments. But the training, discipline and *esprit de corps* which had been inculcated in the Army had an important influence on the outcome of the war.

IN THE Mexican War the Army was deployed for the first time at great distances beyond the frontier. Maj. Gen. Zachary Taylor, after defeating the Mexican Army at Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma, invaded Mexico and captured Monterey. Another force under Brig. Gen. John E. Wool marched south from San Antonio and joined General Taylor's command at Aqua Nueva. The combined forces defeated Santa Anna at Buena Vista on 23 February 1847, ending the war in the north.

Marching from Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, Brig. Gen. Stephen W. Kearny occupied Santa Fe, New Mexico, and continued overland to California where he joined a naval task force. A column under Col. Alexander W. Doniphan marched south from Santa Fe, captured Chihuahua, and joined General Wool's command at Saltillo on 21 May 1847.

In the decisive operation of the

war, Maj. Gen. Winfield Scott, supported by the Navy, captured Vera Cruz 26 March 1847 and after defeating the Mexican Army at Cerro Gordo, Contreras, Churubusco, and Molino del Rey stormed Chapultepec and captured Mexico City on 14 September 1847.

The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, 2 February 1848, restored peace between the United States and Mexico, and ceded New Mexico and California to the United States. The addition of the Gadsden Purchase five years later gave the nation its present continental dimensions.

Demobilization was a continual process during the Mexican War as it had been in previous wars. At the conclusion of hostilities unit demobilization was employed without prior planning. Army casualties in the Mexican War included 1,721 men killed incident to battle, 4,102 wounded, and 11,550 who died from other causes.

In 1847 Dennis H. Mahan, as a professor at the United States Military Academy, published a little book which became the prototype of all United States field service regulations. Both his instruction and his book, *Advanced Guard, Outpost and Detachment Service of Troops*, had considerable subsequent influence upon operational thinking in the United States Army.

1848-1865: Civil War

THE MEXICAN War had not silenced the deep-seated political, economic, and social differences that divided the Nation, but only ac-



The first war to be thoroughly covered photographically, the Civil War produced many pictures like this one taken at the siege of Petersburg.

centuated them. In time these differences were to lead to civil war.

Following the Mexican War the Army reverted largely to its prewar strength except that one additional cavalry regiment was retained; this brought the Army's strength to 10,035 troops in all. At the same time the Army's peacetime duties were greatly enlarged.

Vast territories obtained from Mexico had to be explored, surveyed, and governed and the western settlers protected against the Indians. The Army forces concerned suffered severely in carrying out these added responsibilities. Although the troops maintained a high order of efficiency there was no corresponding improvement in staff organization or in preparations for an emergency.

On 1 January 1861 the strength of the Regular Army stood at 16,367, after having been gradually enlarged to meet the situation in the West. The political split-up which followed the Confederate attack at Fort Sumter on 12 April 1861 was accompanied by a similar division of the Army.

In general, officers from northern states sided with the Union and those from southern states with the Confederacy, but few, if any, enlisted men turned against the Government. The Regular Army detachments in the south were small and both the forces and defenses soon fell to the seceding states.

The tragic conflict between the Union and the Confederacy that followed was one of the bloodiest wars of history. During the war 2,128,948 troops were raised by the Union and an estimated 1,000,000 served with the Confederacy.

INITIALLY the Union relied on short-term Militia and Volunteers of varying periods of enlistments but finally resorted to a draft on 3 March 1863. The Confederacy at first used long-term enlistments but eventually resorted to a draft in April 1862, almost a full year before the North.

No plans for the mobilization of personnel and munitions had been made and no effective replacement system was worked out during the

course of the war. At the beginning both sides were equally unprepared and untrained militarily. The United States really had neither an army nor leaders competent to lead an army. Many of its best trained leaders had chosen to serve with the southern side.

By the end of the first year, however both sides had veteran armies in the field which fought with a skill and deadliness rarely surpassed by the armies of any country at any time.

During the war organizational changes in the War Department and in the field forces were made very gradually by a process of trial and error. In the field the Army for the first time came to include such major commands as brigades, divisions, corps, and armies.

In time, the process of attrition and blockade whittled down Southern manpower, horse power, and resources, and the tide of battle was turned simultaneously at Vicksburg in the West and at Gettysburg in the East. Maj. Gen. Ulysses S. Grant, the victor at Vicksburg, then defeated the Confederate forces at Chattanooga on 25 November 1863.

General Grant was then moved to the East and his plan of campaign, which envisaged a wide envelopment from the West by Maj. Gen. William T. Sherman coupled with continuous direct pressure by Maj. Gen. George W. Meade in the East and Maj. Gen. George H. Thomas in Tennessee, was put into effect.

A HIGHLY effective organization for the conduct of the war had

emerged finally on 17 March 1864 when Grant was promoted to lieutenant general and named General in Chief of the Armies of the United States. He had moved to the East but maintained his headquarters in the field while Maj. Gen. Henry W. Halleck remained in Washington as Chief of Staff. Through Halleck Grant maintained close liaison with President Lincoln and Secretary of War Stanton.

The many costly mistakes and gropings that led up to this solution witnessed the rise and fall of several Union generals in campaigns which demonstrated the genius and leadership of Confederate Gen. Robert E. Lee and numerous of his subordinates. In the final campaigns General Grant commanded with consummate strategical skill one of the largest forces that had ever been engaged up until that time.

War ended with the unconditional surrender of General Lee's forces at Appomattox on 9 April 1865. In the final operations in the East the Union Cavalry, under Maj. Gen. Philip H. Sheridan, contributed conspicuously to the final victory. Following the surrender, General Grant allowed personnel of the Confederate Army to keep their mounts and to proceed home on parole.

THE CIVIL WAR had been fought by mass armies supported by the mass effort of the populace of both sides. The telegraph, the railway, the steamship, and revolutionary improvements in rifles, artillery, and the manufacture of munitions also had a profound influence upon



A contemporary artist's conception of General George Pickett's famous charge at Gettysburg — "high water mark of the Confederacy."

operations. Because of all this, the Civil War has rightly been called the first of the modern wars.

Army casualties included 138,154 killed incident to battle and 280,040 wounded. In addition 221,734 died of other causes. The Confederate Army is estimated to have lost 75,543 killed incident to battle and 59,297 who died from other causes. An additional 194,026 were wounded.

THE SOUTH was prostrate and occupied while the North, though depleted of resources and wealth, was more industrialized than before. The Union had been preserved but

unity of purpose was gone and the Nation had to undergo a long period of healing and reconstruction.

The Monroe Doctrine could not be enforced during the war and France and Spain intervened in the affairs of Mexico and Santo Domingo, respectively. Meanwhile the defenseless posture of Canada, a delicate situation in Europe, and trade considerations were deterrents to positive intervention by Great Britain.

During the Civil War, the Army was in continual process of mobilization and demobilization due to short-term enlistments. After the

Four years of bitter struggle came to a close when General Robert E. Lee surrendered his army to General U. S. Grant at Appomattox in April 1865.



draft law was passed, however, the process was retarded. The Regular Army had been enlarged, the technical and administrative staffs improved, and measures for the inclusion of military instruction in colleges adopted before the war ended.

Following the war, the Army was quickly demobilized by units, leaving Regular Army and Volunteer units the mission of occupying the seceded states and the Far West.

1865-1891: Reconstruction and Indian Wars

DURING the Civil War, European powers, taking advantage of the weakness of the United States, acquiesced in the establishment by France of a monarchy in Mexico under Maximilian. Promptly upon the conclusion of the conflict General Sheridan with a force of about 50,000 was moved to the Mexican frontier. The threat probably speeded the withdrawal of French troops, which supported Maximilian's puppet government, and led to the reestablishment of the Mexican Republic.

Authorized strength of the post-war Regular Army was 54,302 including 5 regiments of Artillery, 10 of Cavalry, and 45 of Infantry. However, there was no action on General Grant's recommendation for a command structure that would have made the General in Chief of the Army responsible, under the Secretary of War, for the control of the Army.

Later, as President, Grant issued a

general order establishing such an organization, but, being in conflict with law, it was revoked 26 March 1869. Not until 1903 was a satisfactory solution attained.

Lessons that would have been valuable in a future mobilization of manpower and materiel and in developing a replacement system were disregarded by the Army, which was then completely engrossed in problems of military government and in the pacification of dissident Indians.

IN SPITE of these tasks, the Army was gradually reduced. In 1867 the authorized strength reached a low of 27,472. Only dedicated individuals remained to build a self-sufficing establishment capable of overcoming all hardships.

In the years from 1865 until 1891 small commands were engaged in bitter primitive warfare against numerous Indian tribes, with the Cavalry, because of its mobility, playing a notable role. In that time there were at least 1,067 separate engagements with the Indians. The Apaches, Modocs, Cheyennes, Utes, Nez Perces, Comanches, Kiowas, Sioux, and other lesser tribes did their best to hold dominion in the West.

Qualified authorities rated the Sioux as the best light cavalry in the world. This tribe won the Indians' most decisive victory at the Little Big Horn, 25 June 1876. Maj. Gens. George Crook and Nelson A. Miles were notably successful in the Indian Wars, which were finally brought to an end at Wounded Knee Creek in 1891.

The period of the Indian Wars



In dozens of Indian battles, as in the Wagon Box Fight near Fort Phil Kearny, Wyoming, in 1867, the Army opened West to settlement.

was not one of total stagnation. Many important technical and training advances were made. The breech-loading cannon revolutionized the Artillery, as the Krag-Jorgenson rifle and the Gatling gun did the Infantry. The Army's system of education was expanded and improved and the basis of a general staff college was

laid. The acquisition of Alaska on 18 October 1867 gave the Army new responsibilities but no additional means.

The handling of small independent commands is the best school for the training of leaders, but this type of work, to the exclusion of large-scale maneuvers and higher theo-

The Cavalry rides again in this painting by Frederic Remington recreating the days when the Army fought Indians in the Far West.



retical instruction for staff and commanders, is one-sided. The Army was, therefore, not prepared for large-scale operations or for a campaign against modern forces.

1891-1901: Spanish-American War and the Philippine Insurrection

AT THE end of the Indian Wars, the Army was scattered in numerous small garrisons over the United States. The country was divided into eight geographical departments, reporting to a War Department still lacking an effective organization for the control of the Army or for the exploitation of scientific developments.

National policy had long favored elimination of European colonialism in the Western Hemisphere. Numerous revolutionary movements had troubled Spanish rule in the West Indies for many years, and the American people sympathized with the aspirations of the insurrectionists.

Both foreign policy and public opinion were far in advance of Army preparation, as the tension came to a head with the mysterious sinking of the battleship *Maine* in Havana harbor on 15 February 1898. On the military side, the Regular Army included but 28,183 effectives, backed up on paper by an untrained and poorly equipped Militia of about 115,627. No plans had been made for an expansion of the Army or for the procurement of munitions. Fortunately the Navy had been mechanized, armored, and expanded into an efficient force.

The Regular Army had been con-

centrated at several points on the Gulf of Mexico only a short time when the President approved a joint resolution of Congress on 19 April 1898 demanding that Spain withdraw from Cuba.

THE ARMY had no experience in the tropics nor training in amphibious operations, and none of the higher commanders had commanded large bodies of troops since the Civil War. The staffs were no better prepared and there was no time to make preparations. The various expeditions soon to be organized were at best mere improvisations.

Nevertheless, the President ordered a naval blockade of Cuba and issued a call for 125,000 volunteers. Spain countered by declaring war on 24 April. By the end of the war 280,564 troops had been raised by volunteer enlistments.

Mastery of the sea had to be gained before the Army could be employed overseas. This was made possible in the western Pacific by Commodore George Dewey's great victory at Manila Bay on 1 May 1898. But Dewey's use of insurrectionists in the Philippines later was to lead to complications and war.

In the Atlantic, Commodore William T. Sampson quickly gained control of the Caribbean area and bottled up the Spanish fleet at Santiago de Cuba. Maj. Gen. William R. Shafter's poorly equipped force of about 15,877 was then landed on 22 June 1898. After brushing aside light opposition, the main attack on

Santiago was begun on 1 July and by 2 July El Caney and San Juan were assaulted and captured, completing the investment of the city.

Admiral Cervera's fleet was forced to come out and was completely destroyed on 3 July 1898. During the same month Puerto Rico fell to a smaller Army force. Another expedition under Maj. Gen. Wesley Mer-

4 February 1899 but were driven off after four days of fighting. News of the attack led Congress to increase the strength of the Regular Army to 10 regiments of Cavalry, 7 of Artillery, and 25 of Infantry or a maximum strength of 67,585. In addition, 27 volunteer regiments were authorized to serve until 1 July 1901.



Another charge that captured imaginations of Americans was that on San Juan Hill during the Spanish-American War, 1 July 1898.

ritt landed in the Philippine Islands with a force of about 11,000 and attacked the defenses of Manila in conjunction with the fleet and the insurgents. With only token resistance, the city was quickly taken on 13 August 1898.

AMERICAN relations with the insurrectionists in the Philippine Islands quickly degenerated into warfare. The Filipinos, estimated to be 40,000 in strength, attacked the outnumbered American garrison on

Fighting soon took on a most primitive form, much like that experienced in the Indian wars. About 3,000 separate actions were fought but the tide was turned with the capture of the Philippine leader Aguinaldo on 23 March 1901.

In the meantime, the United States annexed Hawaii on 12 August 1898, and troops on the way to the Philippine Islands occupied Wake and Guam. By the terms of the Treaty of Paris, 10 December 1898, the United States made im-

portant acquisitions and commitments in the West Indies and acquired the Philippine Islands in the far Pacific. It now had become committed in Pacific problems.

THE ARMY lost 369 killed incident to battle and had 1,594 wounded in the Spanish-American War. Disease and other causes accounted for the loss of 2,061 others during the period of hostilities. Approximately 2,500 men contracted yellow fever during the war and died later in hospitals. The initial cost of the war is estimated to have been \$440,000,000.

The Spanish-American War was fought entirely by the Regular Army and volunteer units. No volunteer units were discharged during the war; but, with the exception of a few retained on occupational duty or employed in the Philippine Insurrection, most were quickly demobilized at the end of the conflict.

1901-1918: World War I

THE United States emerged from the Spanish-American War as a world power but was poorly prepared for its new role.

Following that conflict the War Department, under the direction of Elihu Root, made a study of the organization and past operations with a view to improving the War Department and the field forces. Root at first denied his support to the Commanding General of the Army but gave it to The Adjutant General. Nevertheless, his reforms involved the creation of an effective

general staff under a chief of staff.

The legislation enacted was a distinct step forward yet it was too restrictive. Established bureaus, especially The Adjutant General, contested even this advance.

Creation of a General Staff necessitated the reorganization and enlargement of the Army school system. The Army War College was established as the capstone of a system that included the Command and General Staff School and various branch schools.

But a General Staff is not created by legislation or executive order. The Army had to lift itself by its own bootstraps and the task had not been completed before the next major crisis. The Army was also hamstrung by lack of personnel and equipment and never achieved the strength which American commitments and foreign policy justified.

In the Pacific the Army remained fully occupied suppressing weakened resistance in the Philippine Islands and in bringing stable government to that vast area. But the open-door policy in China, where the European powers were engaged in a scramble for concessions, soon involved the United States and led to Army participation in the China Relief Expedition. Moreover, seeds of future trouble with the Japanese had been planted but before they were to come to fruition the United States was to become more deeply involved elsewhere.

IN THE Caribbean, the Army occupation of Cuba, which was of great benefit to the island, ended



Following the Spanish-American War, the Army saw hard action in now nearly forgotten Philippine Insurrection of Moro tribes.

in 1902, only to be resumed in 1906 and then finally dropped in 1909. The natural corollary to the emergence of the United States as a world power was the need for a trans-oceanic canal. Panama was selected as the site, and the Army Engineers succeeded in constructing a canal where French efforts under Ferdinand de Lesseps had failed. This achievement was made possible by the conquest of yellow fever and improvements in field sanitation pioneered by the Army Medical Department.

The United States used armed forces on numerous occasions in the Caribbean area in support of its foreign policy. Tasks such as intervention in Santo Domingo, Haiti, Panama, Nicaragua, and initially in Mexico, were Navy and Marine Corps responsibilities.

Other actions such as protecting the Mexican Border and expeditions into Mexico fell to the Army. Brig.

Gen. John J. Pershing's Punitive Expedition of 1916, reminiscent of the Indian wars in the West, was but a prelude to a more serious affair in which the United States eventually became involved.

Although the United States was not a party to the controversy that led up to the war between the Triple Alliance and Entente, cultural and sentimental ties and political affinity with Great Britain and France, stimulated by effective Allied propaganda, led the American people to favor the Entente.

President Wilson rejected the idea of placing an embargo on munitions and foodstuffs. German military and diplomatic misconduct and resort to unrestricted submarine warfare finally led to the declaration of war by the United States on 6 April 1917 at a time when the Allied cause had become desperate. The "war to end wars" became a crusade.

The Army was woefully weak and

unprepared to assume its role in the war. To make matters worse there had been prohibitions against the formulation of "official" war plans. Consequently when the crisis came there were no comprehensive plans for the mobilization of either manpower or industry. This lack of thorough planning was partially responsible for America's delay in getting into action, for the disproportion of troops raised to troops engaged, and for the exorbitant cost of the war.

A COMPLETE re-examination of military policy undertaken by the General Staff had led to the enactment of the National Defense Act of 1916. Among other things it standardized and converted the Militia into the National Guard and provided for a Reserve Corps. But the reforms came too late to have any material influence on the events which were to follow.

A variety of technological devel-

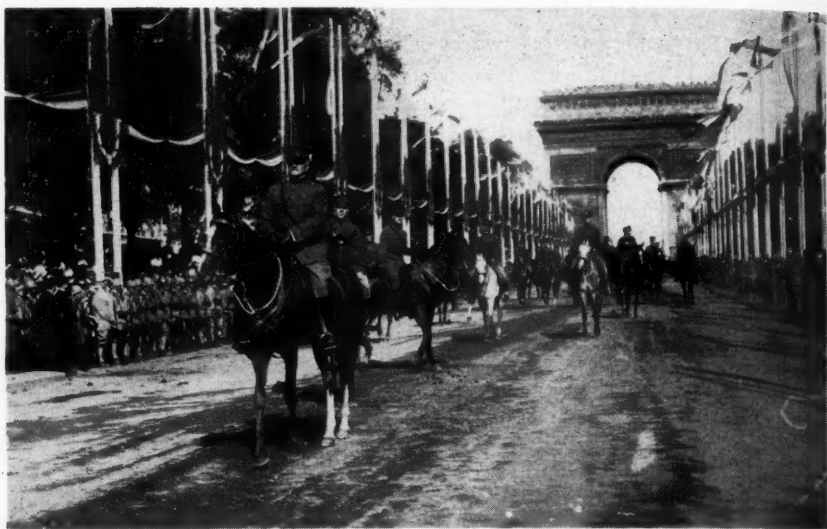
opments gained prominence in World War I. The telephone, invented in 1876, and the radio, invented in 1896, together with the telegraph, were to play an important role in combat operations and in the dissemination of propaganda.

Similarly, the internal combustion engine, first used in flight by the Wright brothers in 1903 and extensively used in vehicles after 1909, had a marked influence on operations both in the air and on the ground. Barbed wire, machine guns, artillery, tanks, and poison gas were also important factors. The mechanization of the Army trailed that of the civilian economy until war caught and skyrocketed it upward.

After the United States entered World War I the Army received more funds than it could use advantageously—a circumstance which led to great confusion and waste in raising and equipping the Army. But the organizing ability of the American people and of the Army

Trench warfare characterized World War I. Here 32d Division troops await attack in Valley of Meuse.





Following World War I, General of the Armies John J. Pershing led Army troops in victory parade in Paris.

showed what could be done in an emergency. Congress passed a universal draft act for raising personnel and an industrial mobilization provided for munitions production.

ALLIED purchases of munitions had helped build up American industry and was thus of advantage to the American war effort. It was equipment, however, that determined the rate at which the Army could be expanded. Wooden substitutes were used in preliminary training pending the arrival of real weapons. The Allies furnished a great part of the equipment that became available.

No provision had been made for a satisfactory replacement system. Combat divisions were broken up and their personnel used as individual replacements overseas.

The United States Navy, reen-

forcing the British Navy, helped to defeat the submarine menace and to gain control of the oceans, thus making it possible to transfer the Army overseas. Of the 4,057,101 men or 62 divisions with supporting troops raised, 2,036,102 or 43 divisions with supporting troops were shipped to France. Of the latter, 30 divisions with supporting troops engaged in battle.

Keeping in mind the decision of his government that eventually an independent American Army must be formed, General Pershing insisted that the American Expeditionary Forces should fight under American command. At the same time, however, he urged unity of command—an idea which materialized when Marshal Foch was appointed to supreme command.

TO ACCOMPLISH his purpose,

Pershing had to overcome the ideas of the Allies who adhered to traditional concepts of command and desired to use American troops as small units to bolster their forces. A Supreme War Council, which never proved very effective, was interposed between Foch and the Allied governments.

During the final operations in Europe, General Pershing initially commanded the First Army in battle and then a group of armies, including the First and Second. Later, the Third Army was assigned occupational duties in Germany.

The Army played a major role in the final campaigns and turned the tide of battle in favor of the Allies. The St. Mihiel and Meuse-Argonne Offensives were the most important United States operations in the war. General Pershing planned to restore maneuver and open warfare to operations, but without any great success. The war ended in the trenches.

Defection of Russia and the counterrevolution there led to the dispatch of Allied forces to Archangel and Siberia. The Army also conducted relief missions in several countries.

DURING the course of the war the Army lost a total of 50,510 men killed incident to battle and had 193,663 wounded. In addition there were 69,446 nonbattle deaths.

World War I cost the United States over 33 billion dollars and an untold expenditure of natural resources. But the country emerged more highly industrialized and mechanized than before. It had re-

established, for a time at least, the balance of power in Europe, but then reverted again to pacifism behind the ocean barriers.

Following the Armistice on 11 November 1918 the American Army was quickly demobilized by units even before it was sure that the Armistice was the prelude to peace. Demobilization was accomplished without any serious planning. Although the President was able to bring about the establishment of a League of Nations, United States participation was never formally ratified by the Senate. Finally, the war was officially ended by a separate treaty with Germany signed on 18 October 1921.

1919-1945: World War II

1919-1935. The post-World War I period falls into two subperiods. In the first, extending to 1935, the military power of the victors progressively grew weaker through disarmament. In the second, steadily rising crises culminated in total war.

Following World War I the United States rejected the League of Nations and returned in very large measure to its traditional policy of noninvolvement in European affairs.

In the interest of international good will the United States withdrew its troops from Russia and later from Germany, reduced the war debts of former allies, and participated in a moratorium which eased the economic situation in Germany. It participated in a number of disarmament conferences and at the Washington Conference gave

up naval superiority. The United States also subscribed to the Pact of Paris which outlawed war as an instrument of national policy.

Relations with the various nations of the Western Hemisphere were improved. Japanese aggression in Manchuria and Italian in Ethiopia were disapproved. Legislation intended to insure American neutrality in event of war abroad, was enacted. Diplomatic relations with Soviet Russia were established in 1933. Meanwhile, Germany, unchallenged by other European powers, began to rearm, and Japan violated the treaty limiting naval armament.

FROM 1919 to 1935 the military policy of the United States was essentially the same as it had been prior to World War I—to maintain an efficient Navy equal to that of any other nation and a small Regular Army backed up by the National Guard and a Reserve Corps.

Based upon experience gained in World War I, a reorganization of the War Department and the Army was effected by the National Defense Act of 1920. This marked a milestone in American military affairs.

The United States territory was divided into nine corps areas and three overseas departments to which were allotted specific troops of the various components. The staff of the Military Establishment at all levels was organized on identical functional lines. The Air Corps became a separate arm and Chemical Warfare a separate service. Each arm and service was headed by a

chief on the special staff level. The Tank Corps was broken up and tanks were assigned to the Infantry.

The Army school system was improved, particularly in the tactical field, and new schools were established. Notable among these were the Air Corps schools and the Army Industrial College, established in 1924.

The Officer Reserve Corps was placed on a firm basis. Extension courses were introduced for inactive duty training and limited active duty tours were inaugurated. Citizens Military Training Camps were established and the Reserve Officers Training Corps program enlarged.

By 1935 enlisted strength of the Regular Army reached the low total of 118,000. Because of progressively dwindling appropriations, most of the Army's work was theoretical rather than applied. The Army did, however, effectively utilize its limited available funds, which dipped to \$277,000,000 in 1934. Small staffs made for efficiency, and small commands stimulated a sense of responsibility which paid enormous dividends at a later time.

GREAT emphasis was given to joint planning, mobilization planning, military organization, training literature, boards for improvement of equipment, the higher education of officer personnel, preservation of divisional-size units, and the modernization of the Army plant. Unfortunately, resources available to the Army were not increased as the foreign policy began to shift in 1933. Instead, under impact of the

Great Depression, the Army was practically demobilized and was given a para-military mission with the Civilian Conservation Corps and other relief agencies.

1935-1945. Objections to Japanese aggression in the Far East and to Italian and German ideology and aggressive actions in Africa and Central Europe led to strained relations with these powers. At the same time President Roosevelt gave increasingly overt support to Great Britain and France. In 1938 the President pledged the support of the American people if "Canadian soil is threatened by any other Empire."

When Nazi Germany and Communist Russia attacked Poland in September 1939, the fuse to World War II was lighted. The United States revised its neutrality laws, lifting the embargo on the purchase and shipment of munitions. It was contended that the Allies needed only munitions to win.

Following the fall of France and the Low Countries, President Roosevelt conferred with Prime Minister King at Ogdensburg on 17 August 1940 and entered into an informal defensive alliance with Canada, which, as a part of the British Commonwealth of Nations, was then at war with Germany. Canada thus became the bridge which led the United States to adjust its foreign and military policies to those of Great Britain.

Soon afterwards destroyers were traded for bases and a lend-lease bill was passed making the United States the "arsenal of democracy".

AXIS aircraft were warned in 1939 to stay out of the western Atlantic, the boundaries of which were subsequently enlarged several times. Staff conferences with the British were held; United States Army and Navy staffs were set up in London and British staffs in Washington.

After completing the campaign in the Balkans, the Germans attacked Soviet Russia on 22 June 1941. Two weeks later American troops began to relieve the British garrison in Iceland.

From the beginning of 1941 onward American pressure upon the German navy had steadily increased first by patrolling, then by convoying, and finally by direct attack.

In the Pacific, a partial embargo was placed on exports to Japan as early as July 1940 and all trade relations were broken a year later. The Japanese attack at Pearl Harbor on 7 December 1941 while diplomatic negotiations were still under way in Washington united the American people and created a warlike spirit.

Germany and Italy promptly declared war upon the United States. Nazi Germany's erstwhile confederate in the destruction of Poland and aggressor in Finland—Soviet Russia—then became an ally of the United States with radically different political objectives.

BY THE TIME of the world crisis realistic plans for both personnel and industrial mobilization had been evolved. The framework of the Field Forces based on four field armies had been established; a major air command, the GHQ Air



Logistical support was an important consideration in planning amphibious operations. Here LCVPs are unloaded at Leyte.

Force, organized and tested; comprehensive military doctrine, including joint Army-Navy action and military intelligence, prepared and tested; and joint war plans for numerous contingencies developed. The National Guard and Organized Reserves were ready to become an important factor in the mobilization.

Nevertheless, military leaders between the two world wars failed to comprehend fully the scientific and mechanical developments then in progress and the revolutionary effect they would have on weapons, organization and tactics which would set the pattern of the next war. World War II was to be a war of maneuver in which airplanes and tracked, armored vehicles deter-

mined the pattern of ground operations.

NOT UNTIL the United States was irrevocably committed in the affairs of Europe and the Far East, after the fall of France, was the Army adequately supported. To make matters worse, future allies, then in straitened circumstances, needed all available equipment. In spite of belated abundance the Army could not recapture lost time, for weapons and munitions are factors in determining the rate at which men can be organized and trained. Again, as in 1917, much of the Army's initial training was with simulated equipment or wooden guns.

The War Department was again reorganized in March 1942 to cope with the many problems arising out of training, production of equipment, and global planning. In spite of deficiencies, the Army entered World War II better prepared to fulfill its mission than in any previous war.

President Roosevelt, Prime Minister Churchill, and their principal military and naval advisers met in Washington at the Arcadia Conference shortly after Pearl Harbor to work out Anglo-American strategy, a system of command, and initial war plans. The defeat of the European Axis was placed in first priority and Japan in second.

The combined United States-United Kingdom chiefs of staff, operating from Washington, became the executive agency or committee under the President and Prime Min-

ister for the conduct of the global conflict through theater commanders who exercised unity of command in their respective areas.

PERFECTION of communications at last made it possible to exercise central control of operations from such a great distance as Washington. General of the Army George C. Marshall, as Army Chief of Staff, played an important role as adviser to the President on matters of strategy. The USSR operated outside of these arrangements but did participate in several high level conferences held during the war.

Japan quickly overran British Malaya and occupied the Dutch East Indies and much of southeast Asia. After a heroic defense Lt. Gen. Jonathan M. Wainwright surrendered the United States Army garrison in the Philippine Islands. Japan

Of all the invasions of World War II, probably the one that will be most often remembered was the great Normandy landing in June 1944.





The return to the Philippines during World War II brought hard fighting on Leyte in October 1944.

thus spread itself thin over vast reaches of Asia and the Pacific Ocean, which were not mutually supporting, and laid itself open to eventual destruction.

Preparatory measures leading to the counteroffensive included the strengthening of China, the reinforcement of Australia, Hawaii and Alaska, the occupation of numerous islands where air fields were constructed, and the rehabilitation of the Fleet. In the meantime, the deployment in the North Atlantic area continued in preparation for the movement of the Army to the Mediterranean and European Theaters of Operations. Initially, shipping losses inflicted by German submarines seriously restricted this movement.

The Army, as well as the Navy and Marine Corps, had participated in amphibious training and in the preparation of joint operational doctrine. The theory, tactics and techniques of amphibious operations had

been an integral part of instruction in higher Army schools for many years. The British had also studied this subject. All of this knowledge and know-how was pooled when the United States entered the war, and an unprecedented number of successful amphibious operations followed.

AMERICAN military planners favored opening a second front in Europe while the Germans were preoccupied with Soviet Russia on the Eastern Front. This move was also preferred by the Russians. The British favored clearing up the Mediterranean area. This was in fact about the limit of Anglo-American capabilities at the time. President Roosevelt agreed with the British. Following this decision the Anglo-American Allies landed in French Northwest Africa on 7 November 1942.

After defeating and winning over the French, the Allies eliminated the

Axis forces there in a campaign lasting about six months. From the training and experience gained in Africa the Army reaped a rich harvest in later campaigns.

At the Casablanca Conference preceding the end of the African campaign, President Roosevelt announced that the United States would fight to an unconditional surrender.

Anglo-American forces followed up the African victory by seizing Sicily and Southern Italy, thus opening the Mediterranean and paving the way for Italy's desertion from the Axis camp. In the meantime the German offensive in the USSR had bogged down, after which the Nazi Army was thrown back and forced to lose ground steadily.

IN THE Pacific the Japanese met a serious reverse at Guadalcanal. A joint United States-Australian force, largely U. S. Army supported by the U. S. Navy, under the command of Gen. Douglas MacArthur steadily advanced in the South Pacific, picking off strategic islands. Another force, including Army contingents, advanced in the Central Pacific under Adm. Chester W. Nimitz. These successes permitted the Army Air Forces to extend operations in conjunction with those of the Fleet.

In Great Britain the build-up for the invasion of Europe continued as the Allied forces were capturing Sicily and slowly picking their way north through Italy. On 6 June 1944, Gen. Dwight D. Eisenhower launched the Anglo-American assault against Normandy, the greatest amphibious operation in history.

Following a build-up of forces in Normandy, Lt. Gen. Omar N. Bradley's 12th Army Group broke out of the beachhead and made a spectacular drive through France. Lt. Gen. Jacob L. Devers' 6th Army Group, an American-French force, then invaded southern France on 15 August 1944. This force eventually joined up with the forces invading from the west for the final assault upon Germany as the Allied forces in Italy fought their way north.

The German *Luftwaffe* had been driven from the sky and allied ground troops were overwhelmingly supported from the air. After attempting a major offensive in the Battle of the Bulge in late December 1944, the German armed forces gradually crumbled into total ruin.

Anglo-American armies halted on the River Elbe and Soviet forces drove the Germans westward, occupying Berlin and much of Germany, thus setting the stage for future difficulties. Hitler eliminated himself and the German armed forces capitulated unconditionally to General Eisenhower on 8 May 1945.

In the Pacific the cordon around Japan was steadily tightened by underwater, air, and surface forces. A measure of aid was given to China. The Philippine Islands fell to General MacArthur and Okinawa to Admiral Nimitz after the Tenth Army, with Marines in corps strength attached, had destroyed the Japanese defenders. Iwo Jima was captured by the Marines and became an important base for the Army Air Forces' bombers.



Corregidor is another immortal name. American troops salute as the flag is raised once again over that historic island in March 1945.



V-E Day came in Europe when Col. Gen. Gustaf Jodl, German Chief of Staff, signed surrender papers at Rheims, France in May 1945.

JAPAN was under heavy aerial attack, its navy destroyed, and its far-flung army helpless. Two atomic bombs, developed under the supervision of the Army Corps of Engineers, were dropped upon Japan. Soviet Russia entered the war 8 August 1945, six days before the capitulation. General MacArthur received the official Japanese surrender on the USS *Missouri* 2 September 1945.

World War II ended with a military victory but serious problems stemming from occupational duties and reorganization remained to involve the Army deeply. During the war, 10,420,000 men and women served with the Army. Of these 234,874 met death incident to battle, 83,400 died from other causes, and 565,861 were wounded in action. The initial monetary cost of the war is estimated to have been 330 bil-

lion dollars.

UNTOLD resources of many categories were also lost. The United States was left heavily industrialized with much of it devoted solely to the production of munitions of war. The intellectual, scientific, and engineering resources of the American people were harnessed to the war effort to an unprecedented degree. The very way of life of the people had been greatly altered and new commitments abroad, under the United Nations Charter, engaged the nation in problems extending beyond the foreseeable future.

For the first time in the history of the United States Army, planning for demobilization had begun before hostilities ended. Under a point system which was worked out and applied Army-wide, demobilization was soon completed but the

Army was reduced to a skeleton so small that it could not even care for its equipment. An incompatible former ally, Soviet Russia, then accelerated its opposition to the interests of the United States.

1945-1954: The Korean War

THE agreements made at the Yalta and Potsdam conferences and the Russian failure to adhere to them led to difficulties with Soviet Russia. As American armed forces grew weaker under demobilization, Russian intransigency increased. Disregarding the altruistic aims of the United Nations, the Soviets pursued an aggressive policy throughout the world and quickly succeeded in subjecting many peoples to Communist control, notably in Central Europe and in Asia.

Under the Marshall Plan, the United States attempted to bolster the sagging economies of western powers which had not yet fallen under Soviet domination. The Soviets retaliated by blockading Berlin where the United States maintained a small force deep within the Soviet Zone of Germany. This blockade was ultimately broken by means of an airlift.

The Soviets refused to recognize the United Nations' mandate in Korea but instead built up a strong Communist regime north of the 38th Parallel. By June 1949 the United States had withdrawn its occupational forces from South Korea, leaving only a Military Advisory Group on duty there.

The rising tension in the East and

in the West led the United States to take positive measures for the strengthening of anti-Communist countries. Many permanent alliances were made with the object of preventing a further expansion of Communist Russia. By 1955 the United States had made treaties with 42 nations aimed at establishing a common defense.

LARGELY as a result of wartime experiences and problems in World War II the Army pioneered the idea of uniting the services under a Department of National Defense. A service-wide reorganization in 1947 placed the Army, Navy and Air Force under a Secretary of Defense who had the technical assistance of the Joint Chiefs of Staff. Neither a single chief of staff nor a super general staff was created. Civilian control was emphasized.

Numerous treaties with foreign governments necessitated the perpetuation of certain wartime committees for the purpose of coordinating American defense with that of allies. The natural result was an enlargement of staffs and a steady increase in their number.

Occupation of former enemy territory in Europe was a joint responsibility of Great Britain, France, Russia and United States forces. United States zones were under Army control. Soviet Russia failed to cooperate, and instead placed many obstacles in the way of Allied commanders. The occupation of Japan, however, was almost exclusively the responsibility of the United States Army, although the

Australian Army participated for a short time.

RISING tension throughout the world resulted in a gradual strengthening of American forces abroad. On 25 June 1950 the Soviet-sponsored North Korean Army attacked the South Korean Republic, where the United States maintained a small military mission. The United Nations Security Council called upon all member nations to assist South Korea repel the aggression.

President Truman complied, sending naval and air contingents. On 7 July 1950 the United States was designated as the directing authority for a United Nations command under General of the Army MacArthur.

Success of the North Korean surprise attack led almost immediately to the piecemeal commitment of the Army in Korea. It succeeded in delaying the North Korean advance but at the cost of heavy losses. Ultimately the Eighth Army was built up in the Pusan perimeter while still under heavy attack.

IN A bold maneuver General MacArthur sent the X Corps, including important Marine forces, in an amphibious landing at Inchon, which was captured after only slight resistance on 15 September 1950. The Eighth Army counterattacked in conjunction with X Corps' attack on the enemy's rear. The two forces made contact on 26 September. This was a spectacular success which netted thousands of prisoners of war. However, numerous guer-

rilla bands were left behind the United Nations front.

In the meantime the South Korean Army was being rehabilitated and trained into an effective force. Other members of the United Nations also sent small contingents, the largest being that of a Commonwealth division sent by the United Kingdom.

On 6 October 1950 the United Nations command launched an attack across the 38th Parallel and soon captured Pyongyang, taking many prisoners. The complete destruction of the North Korean Army was next undertaken when the United Nations forces advanced on the Yalu River, but supporting aviation was not permitted to strike beyond the Yalu.

The Chinese Army had secretly entered North Korea and had established two field armies in the mountain redoubt of that country. On 26 November 1950 these armies attacked by surprise and overran the United Nations troops.

United Nations forces withdrew to South Korea under the impact of this attack. Certain elements, which had been surrounded, had to break through. During the withdrawal of the Eighth Army the U. S. 2d Infantry Division played a conspicuous role as the delaying force. The X Corps was evacuated by sea from Hungnam by 24 December 1950.

A TEMPORARY defensive line across the narrow waist of Korea could not be held and the withdrawal of the United Nations forces continued below the 38th Parallel.



Invasion of Inchon on 15 September 1950 ended North Korean threat to American and allied troops.

The Communists followed up but soon outran their logistical support and suffered heavily from air blows struck at their rear. The Chinese again attacked in force on 31 December 1950 but were thrown back.

The United Nations forces, now under the field command of Gen. Matthew B. Ridgway, who had succeeded to that command when Gen. Walton Walker was killed, took the offensive and methodically pushed the enemy back to the north, recapturing Seoul and a strong position north of the 38th Parallel.

Because of differences of view regarding the conduct of the war in the Far East, President Truman relieved General MacArthur of his commands on 11 April 1951 and appointed General Ridgway in his stead. Soon afterwards armistice talks were initiated.

While the armistice negotiations

continued the war settled down to a passive defense during which many small gains were made by the Communists. The repatriation of prisoners of war became the stumbling block to the conclusion of the armistice, a large number refusing to be returned to the Communists. During the negotiations the PW's caused serious disturbances and immobilized a considerable number of United Nations troops. An armistice agreement was finally reached on 27 July 1953.

In addition to an enormous financial burden and the loss of important resources, the United States lost a total of 33,629 men killed incident to battle and had 103,284 wounded in action. Of these the Army lost 27,704 incident to battle and had 77,596 wounded in action. The

South Korean losses were, of course, far greater.

The United States Army had carried the brunt of the collective effort to halt aggression. At the same time Soviet Russia, although a member of the United Nations which sponsored resistance, had not only furnished no assistance but had supported the aggressor. The armistice marked the end of the fighting but the problem of Korea itself remained unresolved.

While the fighting in Korea was in progress, the United States Army and Allied contingents in Europe were built up under the supreme command of General of the Army Eisenhower. This, together with the war in Korea, entailed a partial mobilization. Certain National Guard and Reserve units and individual trained Reservists were called into the Federal service. Selective Service continued to fill the ranks with required personnel. Munitions production and research also were stepped up as more and more military equipment was shipped abroad to bolster our own and Allied troops.

By 1955 the freedom-loving peoples had met the crisis of Korea but the situation remained precarious, with the United States Army deployed around the world prepared to fulfill its mission on the ground in cooperation with the other services of our own and Allied powers.

Summary

THE accomplishments of the United States Army in the Nation's

service—both in war and peace—have been outstanding. The Army has fought brave and skillful soldiers of many races and in many lands in operations ranging from desperate hand-to-hand engagements with savages equipped with bows and arrows, tomahawks, spears or bolos to vast amphibious battles opposing modern forces.

The Army has also made important contributions to the United States in such fields as education, exploration, domestic order, government, diplomacy, engineering, sanitation, medicine, transportation, communications, and aviation.

It is, however, as an *instrument of force*—the primary mission of any army—that the United States Army has been preeminent; for as Gen. Matthew B. Ridgway, Chief of Staff, U. S. Army, has said, “. . . it is vitally important to remember that wars are won by the achievement of domination over human beings, and



On guard in the Far East.

The Price of National Security Army Casualties in Major Wars

<i>War</i>	<i>Killed Incident to Battle</i>	<i>Wounded</i>	<i>Died of Other Causes</i>
TOTAL	459,326	1,132,860	397,260
Revolutionary War	4,044	6,004	<i>a</i>
War of 1812	1,950	4,000	<i>a</i>
Mexican War	1,721	4,102	11,550
Civil War <i>b</i>	138,154	280,040	221,374
Spanish-American War	369	1,594	2,061
World War I	50,510	193,663	69,446
World War II	234,874	565,861	83,400
Korean War	27,704	77,596	9,429

a Figures not available.

b This does not include Confederate losses.

the territory they inhabit, and that only land forces can achieve and maintain such domination." Thus it is that in the application of force for the purpose of achieving national objectives the Army has always been the trump card of final victory.

The Army has accepted the surrender in all our great wars of the past. Yorktown, Appomattox, Rheims, and Tokyo Bay have witnessed the most notable of these.

But the price for these triumphs can be measured in blood—a total of some 459,326 killed incident to

battle and 1,132,860 wounded in action in major wars. (See table.)

The United States Army has always been imbued with the spirit of the people from which it springs. Since 1775, it has been the servant of the people, toiling and sacrificing for the common good. The vast majority of those who have fought under the colors and standards of the Republic, now decorated with streamers in recognition of sacrifices on many battlefields, have lived by the code, "Duty, Honor, Country," emblazoned on the coat of arms of the U. S. Military Academy.

Limited numbers of extra copies of this Special June 1955 Issue of ARMY INFORMATION Digest are available by requisition through normal AG publications channels.

in
)
al-
t of
ngs.
rant
ing
ma-
ght
of
with
cri-
ved
un-
of
my.



